In a previous notice of the remarkable contribution to temporary history entitled France, by J. E. C. BODLEY (Macmillans), we dwelt mainly on the extent to which the fundamental ideas of the First Republic, to wit, liberty, equality and fraternity, are carried out in the Third Republie. We would now direct attention to topics, part of which are discussed in the first volume and the remainder in the second, namely, the genesis of the Constitution of 1875, under which France is at present governed; the importance of the crisis which occurred on the 16th of May, 1877, and the chances of the Monarchist and apartist pretenders. Those chapters devoted to the executive and legislative machinery are passed over because we had occasion to refer to the subjects at some length when reviewing Mr. Lowell's book on governments and parties in Europe.

The Constitution under which the last generasion of the ninetcenth century has lived in France is distinguished from the politics which preceded it in that it contains no declaration of principle, no philosophic or humanitarian pretensions. Mr. Bodley would not go so far as to say that the absence of axioms similar to those found in the Declaration of the Rights of Man or in the Constitution of 1848 is the very thing which has given the existing system a durability not enjoyed by the regimes initiated by those instruments. It is pronounced, however, cer tain that the circumstances which moved the National Assembly to confine itself to the organization of the public powers, without theoretical dissertations on doc trine, have, in their development, preserved the Constitution of 1875, which has lasted to the end of the century with little modification We must never lose sight of the fact that the political state of things which at present pre valls in France is not due to Republicans, bu subsists in spite of them. The Constitution o the Third Republic owes its origin, as it owe its duration, to the weakness of purpose and the dissensions of the monarchical party. The National Assembly which established the republic was not a Republican body. The majority were monarchical, but the Legitimists, Orleanists, and Bonapartists composing it failed to agree; and the country being weary of an avowedly provisional state of things, the unenthusiastic Assembly at Versailles was forced to confirm Marshal MacMahon as chief the State, with a republican Constitution to guarantee the Septennate or tial term of seven years. Hence the debates which preluded the passing of the organic lav were unique in their character; for, little as they resemble discussions in the English Legis ature on constitutional changes, with their grave references to historical precedents, they departed also from French tradition, in that they were conducted without classical allusion, and without didactic theorizing. We are all familiar with the pedantic extravagances of the orators of the convention, faintly echoed by those who aided Lamartine in making the Constitu tion of 1848; but the National Assembly reared the Third Republic without any inspiration from Greek and Latin antiquity, and without any proofs from the Encyclopædists. The regi cide date of the 21st of January, when the bill for the organization of public powers was re ported, though it raised the ire of aged loyalists whose fathers had served Louis XVI., failed to call forth from Republicans the inapt but once inevitable reference to Marcus Brutus, and M Jules Simon argued with sound philosophy, but without a single specious quotation from the philosophers of the last century. We should here mention that the Committee of Thirty, nominated at the end of 1873 to prepare the cor atitutional laws, reported in 1875, contained

scarcely any Republicans among its members.

In an enactment passed under such conflicting dreumstances, the commonplaces of revolutionary terminology could no more find a place than declarations in favor of limited monarchy or of plebiseftary dictatorships. The keynote to the situation is given in the concluding protests of the extreme Legitimists on the day the new Constitution was voted by the National Assembly. They vainly besought the Broglies and th aussonvilles to hesitate before joining with Republicans of every shade, not only with Leon and Dufaure, but with Gambetta and Jules, Favre in founding the republic. The Oriennists justified their transaction with the Left Centre by the belief that the Consirvative republic would be the safest halting pince till abdication or death took the Comte de Chambord out of the way of the foundation of a e nstitutional monarchy, while the members of public, if once established, would be likely to be come their possession in the face of monarchical dissension. Thus, by a compromise regarded as rovisional by many of its supporters, voted without phrases and without enthusiasm, was founded the regime which has proved more dur-able than any other set up in France since the ancient monarchy succumbed on Aug. 10, 1792. An organic law, thus brought into being, presents no scientific interest such as that of the Constitution of the United States offers. It is chiefly interesting as the scheme of government under which a great people have managed to live for a certain number of years. Even if dec orated with a preamble of pretentious maximum like that prefixed to the Constitution of 1848 it would not have altered the fact that, though France is more exercised in the practice of constitution making than any other civilize nation, that country has never seriously applied itself to the scientific study of constitutions law. It has no classical literature on the sub ject, and, since the revolution, its Faculties of Law have made but faint attempts to give in struction in it, the great jurists not being attracted to a subject made barren in their na tion by recurring political vicissitudes. The existence of a treatise like Tocqueville's "Democracy in America" displays at once the apti tude of the French genius to deal with constitutional problems, and its recognition of the neces sity of turning to other countries to study them. would serve, therefore, no useful purpose to institute a comparison between the French, the English, and the American conceptions of constitution. No such comparison is undertaken by Mr. Hodley. We might take, he says, the Constitution of 1848 and point out how this imperative act of the nation, creating out of nothing an organized hierarchy, differed, on the one hand, from the English Constitution, founded on a series of treaties made during the course of ages between certain ancient corporations the immemorial depositaries of public powers and, on the other hand, differed from the Federal Constitution of the United States, with its antecedent distinct and sovereig bodies politic, which united to create and to limit the State. We might recognize in all this the influence of national characteristics, of the English love for traditional informal precedent on the one hand, and, on the other, of the French tendency toward abstract rationalism, with its refined classifications and its precise formulas. The theme might be further illustrated by contest between the origins of the American and the French democracy; the former without an antagonistic past, never having been mixed with any other element, establishing its regime with out strife and without the destruction of insti tutions; the latter, the final transformation of an aged and complex society effected by means of a struggle, violent and yet not wholly con clusive. While one might be engaged, however on these instructive parallels, Louis Bonaparte would come along, with no other merit to recommend him than the bearing of the name of one who, half a century before, had made short work of constitutions and their makers; so, be fore one had time to formulate his conclusions. the sovereignty of the people would have ex

It is Mr. Bodley's conviction that a regime will have had to last half a century without revolution before the French will begin to be ve in the stability of their constitutions, and before jurists can make them the subject of

pressed itself in a manner repugnant to philos

phy, and, by the voice of the plebiscite, have

ratified the coup d'état of December, as it had

ratified that of the 18th Brumstre, thus decid-

ing to dispense with constitutional government

profitable examination. Sixty years ago, when the monarchy of July gave promise of estab lishing a permanent form of government in France, and the prospects of the Orleans dynasty seemed assured, Tooqueville, in the midst of his studies of American democracy, could not refrain from sounding a note of skepticism He was commenting, it seems, upon the somewhat ironical theory of the immutability of the French Constitution, and illustrated it by quoting the decree Chancellor Maupeou, under Louis XV., which provided that the new tribunal of judges instijuted by it should be irremovable, like their predecessors, who had just been swept away. This tradition of immutability has been main tained so that, in the intervals of revolutions constitutional changes can only be effected by the deliberate setting in motion of an elaborat special machinery. Here French and English ideas and practice are entirely op posed. In England, there has been no revolution since 1688, yet Englishmen possess legal safeguards against hasty amendments of the Constitution. They have no cognizance of constituent assemblies as distinct from legislative assemblies. Each succeeding Parliament is competent to act in either capacity, and the same procedure with which bankruptcy or the cattle trade is regulated would suffice to alter the succession to the Crown. That the working of this system, even with a wide franchise, does not result in either inordinate consitutions hanges or collisions between the estates of the realm is attributed by Mr. Bodley, and, doubtless, correctly, to the national character, though he admits that it may be partly due to the wisdom of former generations of English men, who refrained from substituting a writ ten Constitution for the scattered laws and traditions which ordered the government of the kingdom. Drawn up in the form of a statute, the so-called British Constitution would present perpetual temptation to reformers, even though safeguarded by the precautions with which all ommunities, whether prone to change or not find it necessary to protect a written organic law.

What was the constitutional crisis which ontemporary Frenchmen bave in mind when they speak of the Seize Mai, by which, of course, they mean the 16th of May, 1877! We should recall at the outset the fact that, among th prerogatives conferred on the President by the Constitution of 1875 was that of dissolving the Chamber of Deputies before its legal term, on the advice of the Senate, and that of adjourn ing the sittings of Parliament for a month. How came Marshal MacMahon to use both of these prerogatives at the crisis to which we have referred? To answer that we must go back a little and recall the fact that the first Chamber elected after the voting of the constitutional laws of 1875 contained a large Republican majority, constituting the famous 363; on the other hand, in the Sen ate, the reactionaries preponderated. The Clerical party, disappointed by its defeat at the polls, became so aggressive that the Ministry, presided over by M. Jules Simon, the least anticierical of French Liberals, had to accept the ciplinary policy towards the Church which followed by Napoleon III. Louis Philippe. It was then that Gambetta made use of his famous explana tion. "Le clericalisme, vollà l'ennemi." Somdays later, on the morrow of a less important debate, a letter appeared in the Journal Official dated May 16, 1877, from President MacMaho to his Prime Minister, informing him that he had no longer his confidence, as it was clear that he had lost the influence over the Chamber which a President of the Council ought to exercise. M. Jules Simon resigned and the Duc de Broglie took his place, the President announce ing to the Chambers that he intended to act or his constitutional right of choosing counsellor sharing his views, and, by virtue of the law of 1875, he adjourned them for a month. On reassembling, the Lower House, by a large majority, denounced the coalition of groups hostile to the republic, whereupon the Senate, at the request of the President, authorized the dissolu tion of Parliament. The administrative elec toral machinery was now in the hands of the re actionaries, the Broglie Ministry having fol lowed the policy traditional in France of replac ing the functionaries hostile to it with its own partisans; but, in spite of this advantage for the official candidates, supported by the Government according to the methods practiced under the empire and of a flery manifesto of the Marshal President, a Republican majority was sent back to the Chamber, and the Broglie Cabinet re signed. The Marshal sent for Gen. de Roche bouct, who formed a M!nistry of unknown reac tionaries, but as the Chamber refused to vote it supplies, it survived only for a few days, when M. Dufaure formed a republican Cabinet, which lasted only for the remainder of the MacMahor

Mr. Hodley devotes several pages to the history of the Seizo Mai, for the reason that it indicate the difference between the English and the French conception of what is constitutional, and also displays how inconveniently a written constitution may work with Parliamentary institu tions. The constitutional laws of the Third Re public make no mention of the nomination of Ministers, which is deemed the prerogative of the President, in virtue of the article investing him with the appointment to all civil and mill tary posts. The practice now is for a member of the retiring Cablact to countersign the Presiden tial nomination of the new Prime Minister, who in turn, countersigns the nominations of his col leagues; but if all the retiring Ministers should refuse thus to indorse the nomination of the new President of the Council, there would be prot ably a deadlock, the law making no provision for the case. Here we have, then, what in England would be called a constitutional practice growing up side by side with a written Consti-Again, the law is silent on the power of the President of the republic to dismiss a Ministry, so an unwritten theory has here als to be applied to the effect that the President cannot make his Ministers resign so long as the retain the confidence of the majority in the population ular Chamber. On the Scize Mai, the Ministr dismissed by the Marshal had a great majority in the Chamber, and his arbitrary disregard fo it was, from the English point of view, an constitutional act. Yet contemporary rec ords show that, amid all the passion roused by this coup d'état, it was rarely suggested that the President had acted unconstitutionally, though his action was notoriously due to the advice of a small band of irresponsible counsellors unknown to the Constitution, Indeed, Gam betta, the rival champion of MacMahon in this crisis, said, in all sincerity, on the morrow of the event, "No one can deny the President's loyalty to the Constitution." Herein Mr. Bodley di corns the difference between the English and the French conception of loyalty to the Constitu tion. A British sovereign might adhere to the letter of the written law and yet be guilty of unconstitutional conduct. The chief of the French Executive, so long as he adheres to the

Presidency.

letter of the written law, is not accounted disloyal to the Constitution, even by his enemies. The turbulence of the debates at Versailles when the Chamber of Deputies reassembled, did not favor calm juridical discussion, and few of the speakers referred to the constitutional aspect of the crisis. Gambetta, during the ad-journment, had said: "The struggle is more refound than a mere combat for the Constitu tion. The struggle is between the old castes. with their privileges of a bygone regime, b tween the agents of the theocracy of Rome and e Sons of 1789." This language, stripped of rhetoric, expressed the opinion of both parties in the contest. The Seize Mai was a politica and not a constitutional crisis. The real question at issue was not whether the President o the republic should have the right to override the majority of the popular chamber but whether the republic should continue to exist. That the Republicans have never, during their subsequent predominance, amended the Constitution by limiting the powers of the President in dismissing or choosing his Ministers, is, in Mr. Bodfey's judgmens, convincing proof that the Seize Mai was an attempt to change the political form of government rather than to enlarge the prerogative of the chief of the State. The comparative experience of the methods of Marshal MacMahon and of Louis Napoleon

strictly so termed there are but few survivors, proved to France that a coup d'état, to be effec tive, requires armed force which no constitu

tional enactments can guard against. The coup d'état of the Seize Mai was condemned by all Europe from its inception. Even had it produced a reactionary majority. Mr. Bodley cannot see what would have been done with it, for the Comte de Chambord had still six rears to live, so a Restoration was not practica ble, and MacMahon had neither the ambition nor the unscrupulousness to institute a military dictatorship. Its chief effects were to prove again to the country the incompetence of the Monarch ists, and, by associating in the public mind the Catholic Church with this abortive attempt, to provoke those reprisals from the anti-Clercals, when they got the upper hand, the bitter ness of which still lingers in the memory of many Frenchmen. After the submission of Marshal MacMahon, Gambetta sagaciously expressed the wish that he should be allowed to complete his term, so that the peaceful transmission of his powers to a duly elected suc-cessor might display the advantage of republian rule over the other regimes of the century. under which all reigns but one had come to riclent and But the old soldier found himsel isolated, and, in January, 1879, he made a differ ence of opinion on a military question an excus for resigning, whereupon a leader of the Paris bar, M. Jules Grevy, then President of the Chamber of Deputies, was elected to succee nim by the National Assembly—that is to say, by both Chambers in joint session-which thus net for the first time under the provisions of the constitutional law.

Let us turn now to some questions considered by Mr. Bodley in the second volume of this work. What prospect have the Monarchists of the Bonapartists of overthrowing the Third Republic! It is acknowledged by our author that the late Due d'Aumale personified the three traditions which are as potent as ever to evoke the sympathies of the French nation—the traditions, namely, of military glory, of order and of the Revolution. It is not, therefore, because his grandnephew is a membe of the House of Orleans that the young Prince is deemed not to possess them. The revolutionary tradition he inherited as his birthright, but, having joined with his father in cutting off the entail by a recognition of the Comte de Chambord's divine right to rule, that patrimony is dissipated; and, though his kins men have been gallant soldiers, his own name has no association with the glamour or with the authority of the army. If the Duc d'Orleans the throne, it would be as a constitutional King; for, in spite of his repudiation of the name of Louis Philippe and of his antique travesties, he would have to accept a charter with a better grace than did Charles X., and or the wider basis of universal suffrage. The practical effect of such a change would be the perpetuation of the parliamentary system, in the hands either of inexperienced re actionaries or of more expert republicans allied to the monarchy. Thus all the ills that now disparage the republic would be repeated with the addition at the top of the new fabric of a court, and in it the monarch would have to create innumerable cersmoulal posts for persons of the class which, next to the politician, is at the close of the century the least creditable element of French so ciety. Aristocratic from the viewpoint neither of heraldry nor of philology, that class would have all the unpopular attributes of an aristocracy. For its brief duration it would be the apotheosis of the cosmopolitan plutocracy which has over whelmed the once brilliant society of Paris, where it first found a footing under the un toward auspices of the court of the Second Empire, whereof this revival would be a de teriorated copy without the support of a military autocracy.

of active benefit to a people even in a modern democratic State. The character and taste of the sovereign may make the palace the centre of the highest life of the nation, adding a lustre to lofty pursuits, which otherwise are deemed respectable rather than brilliant, and elevating the views of the whole community. In our author's opinion the death of the Prince Cor sort, by practically depriving England of a court, was the most important national even in the last half of the century, withdrawing the only influence capable of checking the aggres sive march of plutocracy which has transformed the character of English society. Consider ing that the whole achievement of the united conarchical party, no longer rent asunder by Legitimist and Orleanist factions, or rivalled by Bonapartists, has been to identify itself with the triflers of the capital, who are destitute of influence, and with the recluses and rural sportsprising that it has driven out of its ranks the electorate of France. At the elections in 1885. when the deaths of Gam'-etta and of the Comte de Chambord had removed the only popular figure in the republic and the most unpopular obstacle to the monarchy, the country showed that, if skilfully guided, it would be willing to try change of regime. Of the votes polled, 45 per cent, were given to the reactionaries, and if they had obtained one-half o the abstentions the republic would have come to an end. In the next eight years the Comte de Paris and his followers managed to exterminate the monarchical sentiment in the nation. Scandal after scandal had meanwhile discredited the Government of the republic vet in 1893 on the morrow of the Panama af fair, the electorate of two evils preferred the doubtful problet of the republicans to the cer ain incapacity of the royalists; so the reac tionaries obtained only 16 per cent, of the votes recorded, and if every elector who abstained rom the poll had voted for them, even then hey would have been in a hopeless minority. In 1885, thirty departments in every region of France had declared for the monarchy. In 1893 wo in Brittany and one in Normandy alone re turned a bare majority of royalist Deputies.

Mr. Bodley does not deny that a court may b

rchy be improbable, it does not follow that the republic is established in perpetuity. On the ontrary, the main purport of the book before us is to prove that there is an element in the French nation whereof the importance cannot be gauged by the character of the shadowy parties or groups which in quiet times presume to represent it. The Bonapartist, revisionist and other plebiscitary organizations are fo the nonce insignificant coteries directed by insignificant people; the principle, on the other hand, which they obscurely advocate is a sentiment latent in the people, which is brought to the surface not by the intrigues arguments of propaganda, but by periodic currents of popular feeling. Such a tide, when it sets in, may carry some individual to the throne of France. It may be an Orleans, it may be a Bonaparte, but, whoever it may be, he will be placed on the perflous eminence, not as a member of this or that dynasty; he will attain it because his figure and his peronal character, real or supposed, have touched the imagination of the people of France, or because he is the nominee of the he of the hour, who prefers to delegate to another the supreme power which he himself might claim. Had the Comte de Paris been brought back as king by Gen. Boulanger, t would not have been as a rightful heir restored to the throne by a Gen. Monk, as was auggested at the time. He would not have returned as the successor either of Charles X, or of Louis Philippe. He would have assumed the rown because a soldier of fortune, fluding the kingly office inexpedient for himself, chose him as its titulary, as he might have chosen Prince Napoleon or, indeed, some personage destitute of dynastic pretensions. To our author's eye the contrast between the situation of the plebiscitary cause and that of the roy-alists is remarkable. The royalists form conspicuous section of the population, both in the gay society of the capital and in the seconded chateaux of the provinces; out, prominent without importance and wealthy without influence, it is pronounced improbable that they will ever bring back to France as a constitutional monarch the pretender of their nopes. The plebiscitary doctrine, on the contrary, though it can sesroely be said to be pro essed by a party, and though of Bonspartists

If the restoration of a parliamentary mon

jority of the nation.

may yet one day be put into practice by a ma-M. W. H. The Neutrality of the American Lakes. One of the most useful contributions to the series of essays in historical and political science published by Johns Hopkins University is a discussion of The Neutrality of the American Lakes and Anglo-American Relations, by JAMES MORTON CALLARAN. This is a thorough study of the documents bearing on the respective rights of the United States and Great Britain in the great lakes, and upon the agreement of 1917 whereby the neutrality of those basins was to be assured. The value of such a work will e appreciated by those who recall the agitation for the annullment of that agreement which in use upon the lakes. gained considerable momentum in 1895, and which may recur at any hour should the present friendly relations of the two countries be threatened with disturbance. We shall endeavor to give, in as brief compass as possible, summary of the facts and conclusions set orth in a volume of nearly two hundred pages. It will be comembered that England continued e hold the lake posts until the conclusion of the Jay treaty in 1796, and that British traders in-

tended to push the United States boundary to the south of the lakes. The truth is that American rights in the Northwest and on the great lakes were not entirely assured until they were confirmed by fleets and diplomacy in the war of 1812. By the treaty of Ghent, signed on Christmas eve, 1814, the lake boundary and the Northwest were secured to the United States. It was obvious, nevertheless, that continued peace could not be guaranteed by procla-mation. With rival navies recently built upon the lakes, there was dauger of future collisions in that quarter, which might again cause war with England. It was recognized by President Madison and his some effective arrangement advisers that should be made to minimize the sources of tuture misunderstanding. They saw that if the peace of Ghent was merely to bring about a perpetual race in naval construction it would only be temporary and expensive. Negotiations, therefore, for the purpose of securing disarmament on both sides were resolved upon. Here the fact should be noted that at Ghent the representatives of England had proposed that the military control of the lakes should be conceded to that power so as to avert the expense of rival armaments. This proposal of a one-sided disarmament probably suggested to the United States Commissioners the idea of making it mutual; but their instructions at that time did not permit them to make such an offer. After the peace, how-ever, it became clear that mutual disarmament was the only assurance against collision. Thus it came to pass that, with instructions from the United States Government, John Quincy Adams proposed to Lord Castlereagh at London in January, 1816, that some arrangement should be made by the two Governments with a view of averting the threatened evil of rival naval forces upon the lakes. After a debate in Parliament the British Minlatry decided so far to accept the proposal "as to avoid anything like a contention between the two parties." Some months later James Monroe, Secretary of State, submitted to the English Minister at Washington the "precise project," which provided for limiting the orce on the lakes to one vessel on Lake Champlain, one on Lake Ontario, and two on the upper lakes, each to be of 100 tons burden. and to be equipped with one eighteen-pound This force was to be restricted in its duty to the protection of the revenue laws, he transportation of troops and goods, and such other services as would not interfere with the

armed vessels of the other party. On Jan. 17 Lord Castlereagh announced that England was ready to accede to this proposal. The reciprocal and definite reduction of the naval forces on the lakes did not occur, however, until the following year, after Monroe had become President. It was then completed by the exchange of notes between the English Minister at Washington and Mr. Rush, who was acting as Secretary of State until Mr. Adams should arrive from London. The agreement became effective at once, although there is no evidence that Great Britain gave it the formality of a treaty. In 1864-65 both Seward and Palmerston spoke of the arrangement as an "informal" one. Formal or nformal, the agreement provided that all naval vessels, except the four allowed by the agreement with restricted duties), should be forthwith dismantled, and that no other vessels of war should be built or armed upon the lakes; but it was also stipulated that either party could abrogate the agreement by giving six months' notice. The arrangement made no provision with regard to revenue vessels, but both parties seem now men of the chateaux, of ill tradition in the eyes | to consider that thes; are not a part of the navy. the agreement. The original intention of Presidont Madison was to reduce cutters to the 'minimum of size and force, if allowed at all." In 1857 and 1858 the British Government evidently considered that revenue cutters came within the limitations of the agreement. In 1864 Mr. Seward was "not prepared to acknowledge that it was the purpose of the agreement to restrict the armament or tonnage of vessels designed exclusively for the revenue service." In 1865, however, Mr. Seward, in reply to a note from the British Minister concerning such vessels, stated that "their armament, iffany, would not be allowed to exceed the limits stipulated in the conventional arrangements." It is pointed out by Mr. Callahan that ques-

tions have arisen at different times as to whether the agreement applies to all of the great lakes. In 1864 the Assistant Secretary of the Treasury was not sure that it included Lake Erie as one of the "upper lakes." When the military canal from the Mississippi to Lake Michigan was proposed to Congress during the civil war there was some doubt whether this lake came under the provisions of the agreement of 1817. Not only has the agreement been treated as applying to all the lakes, but, in the judgment of the author of this book, it would probably be nterpreted as applicable also to all streams which flow into the basins included in its provisions. By the construction which has been placed upon the clause, "no other vessels of war shall there be built or armed," the Navy Department has refused to accept the bids of lake builders of naval vessels which were to be constructed for use on the These bids could have been accepted under the liberal interpretation that a bull would not be a war vessel until after she had received her armor and guns. But it has seen thought best not to interpret the treaty thus. To Mr. Callaban it seems probable that the Navy Department may have been guided in its action chiefly by the fact that the vessels, after being built, would have to pass through a long stretch of exclusively Canadian waters in order to reach the sea. Permission has been readily obtained at various times to take vessels through these waters, but it seems to favor of a neighboring nation.

have been considered bad policy to ask such a It was the impossibility of getting the vessels from the lakes to the sea in the first quarter of this century that made it necessary to dismantle them where they were. The United States had begun to reduce the expense of their fleets soon after the peace, either by dismantling or sinking their vessels. Thus had perished the fleet of the gallant Perry. On Lake Cham-On Lake Ontario there had been a large number of vessels, but most of them were laid up or dis mantled. Work had been suspended upon the large ship New Orleans of seventy-four guns. After the agreement of 1817 the work of dismantling or sinking was continued, and soon only fragments of hulks were left as reminders of former squadrons. By 1825 public vessels had practically disappeared, both parties diswhich had been allowed by the agreement. In 1837, however, during the insurrection in Upper Canada, an insurrection with which a good many Americans sympathized, both countries began to inquire into the expedieary of preparing an armed force for the lakes. The British Government ultimately gave notice that on account of threatened invasion they found it necessary to equip tempo rarily a larger number of vess

authorized by the agreement of 1817. No ob

jection was made by our Executive, but the con-tinued reports of British defences on the lakes attracted the attention of Congress, and in 1841 resulted in an appropriation for armed vessels on those waters. Our relations with Canada, however, became in a few months much more satisfactory, and the British force was soon reduced to the prescribed limits. Nevertheless the United States vessel, the Michigan, which had been provided for by the appropriation of 1841, was placed on Lake Erie in 1843. Her size and armament were in excess of the stipulations of 1817, and this fact drew forth a remonstrance from the British Minister, but it was urged that changes from sail to steam vessels since 1817 justified a revision of the agree ment in regard to the size of vessels. For many years the Michigan was the only public vessel

It will be recalled that Anglo-American relations were severely strained by several events growing out of the civil war. From the latter part of 1863 till the suppression of the rebellion the Confederate agents in Canada threatened to break the peace on the northern frontier. There were no British naval vessels on the lakes, and the United States felt the need of a larger force for protection in that quarter. The crisis came in September, 1864, when Canadian passengers captured a steamer and unfurled the Confederate flag upon the lakes. Their plot to strike a blow at north-ern cities failed, but this attempt, together with the attack upon St. Albans, Vt., in October of the same year, and various rumors which followed, kept the American people in a state of excitement, and gave the Fenians th ides of invading Canada. When Congress met five new revenue cutters were ordered for the lakes, and the prescribed six months' notice was given in order to assure the abrogation of the agreement of 1817. War, nevertheless, was averted. England began to act more energetic ally, and Canada passed a more offective law for stopping Confederate raids. Nevertheless, several years elapsed after the end of the rebellion before the questions which it engendered were adjusted. It appears that for some time after the Fenian invasion of 1866, steamers were chartered by the Canadian Governmen and fitted up as temporary gunboats for service on the St. Lawrence and the lakes, to resist such incursions. The Michigan and a revenue cutter were sent by the American Government to patrol the Ningara River for awhile in 1866. In the following year all the lake revenue cutters belonging to us seem to have been laid up, and such was their condition in 1870, when it was reported that there were plans for an invasion of Canada. The Michigan, however, was ready for service at that time, and she has since continued to cruise in the upper lakes. In 1878 Secretary Thompson suggested the expediency of selling her and applying the proceeds on a new vessel tion. In 1890 petitions were received by Congress from Chicago to the effect that this antiquated ship should be replaced by a modern one,

but no heed was paid to the application There has been some doubt as to whether the agreement of 1817 has been in existence since 1865, from the fact that in February of that year Congress ratifled the notice of abrogation which had been given some time before by the Secretary of State. This notice was afterward withdrawn through the State Department, but without any action on the part of Congress Secretary Thompson in 1878 said whether the arrangement remains in force since 1865 must rest upon the decision of Con gress." The State Department has treated it as still in force. Mr. Callahan thinks that Congress would do the same, and he asserts that gress who would have voted for its abrogation. It is of course recognized by the author of this essay that the friendly convention 1817, which had the effect of ishing rival navies upon the great highways to the Northwest, was a departure from the old maxims of diplomacy. There are, to be sure, many precedents for the neutralization of a zone along a land boundary, and several instances of guaranteed neutrality of small States or territories, but there is no pre cise precedent for the agreement in question. The same geographical and political conditions that obtain in regard to the Great Lakes do not exist elsewhere. The nearest approach to them is observable in Lake Geneva and the Caspian Sea. We are reminded that the Crimean War resulted in the neutralization of the Black Sca. but the author might have added that the pro visions of the treaty of Paris forbidding Russia to maintain a fleet in that basin was abrogated

by that power during the Franco-German War. Pasteur.

Mr. PERCY FRANKLAND, a well-known English chemist, has written for "The Century Science (Macmillans) a sketch of the life and work of one of the most remarkable men of science this century has produced. refer to Louis Pasteur, whose name is inseparably associated with the discovery of mocular dissymmetry, with researches into the cause and process of fermentation, with the disproval of spontaneous generation, with studies of wine and beer that have had most beneficial practical results, with a fruitful investigation of the diseases of the silkworm, with the detection of the germs of infectious diseases. with the discovery of anthrax vaccine. and with the prophylactic treatment o rables. It was he of whom Renan said: "His cientific career is like a inminous trail in the deep night of the infinitely little. In those ultimate abysses of being where light is born." Him, also, another French writer had in mind when he said that "When man learned how to protect himself from the wild beasts he made the first step in civilization. To-day man has learned how to defend himself from microbes; it is a step of equal importance. A day will come when, in Berlin, in London, in Paris in New York, man will not die of diphtheria, of typhoid, of scarlet fever, of cholera, or of tuber culosis any more than he dies in these cities to day from the venom of snakes or from the teeth of wolves."

Louis Pasteur was born in a small house in poor quarter of the town of Dole on Dec. 27. 1822. When an infant of but two years of age his parents removed to the town of Arbois where his childhood was passed. That his father, a hard-working tanner, was a man of character and stern experience is shown by the fact that he had fought in the legions of the First Empire, and that he had been decorated on the field of battle by Napoleon. The rough soldier made the greatest sacrifices to secure the best educational advantages for his son, who, on his part, not unmindful of this unselfish devotion, dedicated to his father the most cele brated of his works. At first Louis Pasteur was sent to the communal college in Arbois, after which he went to Besancon, where, at the end of the academic year, he took his degree of bach elor in letters, and was at once appointed a tutor. In such time as he could spare from his tutorial labors and his other studies, Pasteur attended special courses of instruction in math ematics so as to prepare himself for the examination in science of the École Normale of Paris. He passed and was admitted, but only attained the fourteenth place. It was characteristic that this position did not satisfy him, and he determined to withdraw and work for another year. For this purpose he went to Paris to study, and in 1842, on again submitting to the examination, he gained the fourth place. It was at the age of 25, while he at the laboratory of the Ecole Normale, that Pasteur made his first venture in the scientific arena by his discovery of molecular dissymmetry. He became thereby the father of one of the most wonderful departments of modern chem tstry, namey, the one which has for its aim the discovery of the special distribution of the individual atoms in the molecule. At the end of 1848, Pasteur was appointed

professor of physics at the Ly: Tof Dilon, and, three months later, he was neminated deputy professor of chemistry at the University of Strasburg, becoming full professor in 1859 During the five years that he spent in Alsace, Pasteur devoted himself almost exclusively to the systematic investigation of asymmetric compounds, and, with this period of his life are asciated those important, and now classical, re-

searches on the conversion of right-handed tartario seld into inactive tartario seld (racemie acid) on the one hand, and into a new form of inactive tartaric acid (mesotartaric acid) on the other; his discovery of the method of splitting up racemic acid into its components, dextro and lacvo-tartaric acids, by means of optically active bases; and his refutation of Dessaignes's reputed conversion of fumaric and malete acids into aspartic acid identical with that hitherto only obtained from asparagine. He found that an apparently trivial difference in the arrangement of the atoms in space in the ease of two tartarie acids made an overwhelming difference in their physiological character. This phenomenon, which is, undoubtedly, one of the most striking in the whole domain of chemical science, appears to be a very general one in the case of bodies admitting of two or more different arrangements of their atoms in space. Although not further pursued by Its discoverer, this physiological differonce has been largely utilized by subse quent investigators for the preparation of optically active compounds. In 1856 the British Royal Society conferred the Rumford medal upon Pasteur in recognition of his researches on the polarization of light with hemihedrian of crystals. Such was the work accomplished by Pasteur, within the short period of ten years n the domain of pure chemistry and molecular physics. It was an achievement on which ar prestigator might have looked back with pride at the close of a lifetime; yet, on its completion. Pasteur stood but on the threshold of his career.

HI.

Pastenr died in September, 1895, and, after a public funeral at Notre Dame, attended with military honors, his body was deposited in the A new chapter in Pasteur's life opened with the year 1854, when, at the age of 32, he was nominated Dean of the Faculty of Sciences, which had just been created in the industria centre, Lille. As principal of this new institution, he was at once brought in touch

with one of the leading industries of the district, the manufacture of alcohol, and he was, consequently, impelled to throw himsel into the study of fermentation. At this time fermentation processes were not generally regarded as vital phenomena at all, for the domi nant opinion concerning them was that of Lie big, who viewed the classical transformation of sugar into alcohol as a purely chemical process epending not upon the living yeast cells which the microscope reveals, but upon the dead yeas undergoing post-mortem decomposition. It was Pasteur who proved that alcoholic fermentation s an act correlated to the life and to the organization of certain living corpuscies, and not to their death or to their putrefaction. It was while these fermentation researches were be ing prosecuted that Pasteur was prothe post of director of scientific studies at the École Normale in Paris. His first achieve ment in his new position was to close the breach between chemistry and biology, by demonstrating the possibility of life without air Not long after his establishment at Paris Pas teur engaged, almost single-handed, against some of the subtlest intellects of the day arrayed on behalf of the theory that life may be spontaneously generated. Pasteur main tained the negative, and his conclusions have been accepted by a whole generation of scientific men, who have indorsed the statement made by him in the following words: "No there is to-day no known circumstance which permits us to affirm that microscopic beings have come into the world without germs without parents like unto themselves who held that they been the plaything of illusions, of experiments badly made, tainted with errors which they have not known how to detect, or which they have not known how to avoid. Spontane ous generation is a chimera." We pass over, with but a cursory allusion, Pasteur's studies on the vinegar organisms which served to confirm his vitalistic theory of fermentation, which may be expressed in the words: "No fermentation without organism; in every fermentation, a particular organism." The noteworthy results of his excursion into practical matters in connec tion with the manufacture of vinegar led him to give similar attention to questions relating to the production of wine. His first experiments were made for the purpose of discovering, if possible substance, which, while inimical to bacterial life, and, therefore, a cure for the diseases wine, would not, when added to the wine, impair its flavor and bouquet. Various antiseptics were tried, but the results were not encouraging, and Pasteur then determined to have recourse to heat. He found that a process of partial sterilization, now generally known by his name as "Pasteurization," could be employed with the greatest success in con nection with winc, beer, milk, cream, and other food products of a perishable nature. For instance, wine, if heated for a short time to a temperature of from 55° to 60° Centigrade, can be effectually protected from subsequent deteribouquet. It was difficult to convince wine growers and wine merchants of this truth, but finally a jury of expects, which sat in 1865 at the Ecole Normale, subjected the theory to the most searching tests and unanimously agreed that if any difference did exist between the heated and the unheated wines in respect of layor and bouquet, it was so insignificant as to

be practically imperceptible. In 1863 Pasteur had exchanged his official appointment of Director of Scientific Studies in he Ecole Normale for the professorship of geology and chemistry at the École des Beaux Arts, which post he held up to 1867. It was during the latter part of his tenure of this office that he entered upon his researches into the diseases of the silkworm. The result of his inrestigations was that he presented the silkworm roprietors with an easy method of distinguish ing healthy from infected eggs, which, while saving the trouble and expense of rearing sickly worms, would also materially assist in diminish ing the proportions of the epidemic known as pebrine, by banishing bad graine, or oggs, and employing only those that should be certified as free from disease. So signal was the and cess of the remedial methods recommended by Pasteur that he received in 1868 a prize of 12,000 france from the Austrian Government in recog nition of his researches on the diseases of silk worms, and, two years later, the Emperor nomi nated him a Senator.

III. The effect that the outcome of the war of 1876 and upon Pasteur may be inferred from the letter in which he requested the Dean of the medical faculty at the University of Bonn to take back the diploma of Doctor of Medicine which they had conferred on him in 1868. It was with a patriotic purpose that he now began to investigate the fermentations incidental to the brew ing of beer, in order that he might be able so to improve the manufacture of French beers tha they should be in a position to compete success fully with those produced in Germany. That his patriotic ambition was fulfilled we know from the tribute paid to him by French brewers at a congress held in the year 1889. It was in his "Studies on Beer" Pasteur let fall the significant suggestion that "the cliclogy of infectious diseases is, perhaps, upon the eve of receiving unexpected light." As early as 1874 Dr. Lister the celebrated Scotch surgeon, when forward ng to Pasteur a memoir on the lactic ferment, took the opportunity of sending him his warm thanks "for having, by your brilliant researches, demonstrated the truth of the theory of putrefactive germs, and having thus giver me the only principle which could lead to the success of the system of antiseptics." Many years later (1892), on the occasion of Pastour's ubilee celebration, Lister, who was present as the representative of the Royal So ciety, again referred to the dobt of gratitude which the art of surgery owed to Pasteur's researches, "Truly," he said, "there does not exist in the entire world any individual to whom the medical sciences owe more than they do to you. Your researches on fermentation have thrown a powerful beam which has lightened the baleful darkness of surgery and has transformed the treatment of wounds from a matter of uncertain, and too often discretrous, empiricism into a scientific art of sure beneficence. Thanks to you, surgery has undergone a complete revolution, which has deprived it of its terrors, and has extended, almost without limit, its efficacious powers." Pess over Paeteur's researches on anthrax and

his discovery of a vaccine for that infectious cattle disease which, in France alone, would comptimes mean a loss to the country of from fifteen to twenty millions of france in a single year. Best known of all his achieve. ments was his discovery of a vaccine for the rables resulting from the bits of a mad dog, and his foundation of an asylum, the Institut Pasteur, where the raccine is prepared and administered. No fewer than 18,645 persons have been treated with the vaccine for rables at the Pasteur Institute during the last decade, and it is computed that in France alone nine hundred thousand sheep and about five hundred thousand oven are apnually inoculated with anthrax vaccine, We add that it was Haffkine of the Pastrue Institute who devised a method of contending against cholera by protective inoculation while it was Yersin of the Institute who die covered the plague bacillus at Hong Kong.

Pasteur Institute. Few men, during their lifetime, have received more general recognition than was accorded to Pasteur. Merely to summarize some of his distinctions, we may note that he was a member of the French Academy of Sciences, a foreign member of the British Royal Society, an associate of the British Academy of Medicine, member of the French Academy, a D. C. I. of Oxford, and Perpetual Secretary of the French Academy of Sciences. Among the various medals and other prizes bestowed upon him we may single out the Rumford Medal of the Royal Society, the Copley Medal of the same society, the Austrian prize of tweive thousand france above referred to, a prize of twelve thousand francs from the Société d'Encouragement, a medal from the Russian Society of Rural Economy, the Albert Medal from the Society of Arts, and the Bressa prize of tweive thousand france from the Turin Academy of Sciences. In 1874 the French Government voted him an annual pension of twelve thouand francs, which, in 1883, was raised to twenty-five thousand francs, with the further proviso that on his death it should be continued to his widow and children. Pasteur was also the recipient of numerous decorations. Chevaller of the Legion of Honor in 1853, he became suc cessively Officier in 1863, Commandeur in 1868, Grand Officier in 1878, and Grand Croix in 1881 A large number of orders were also bestowed upon him by foreign countries, among which were Russia, Denmark, Greece, Brazil, Sweden, Turkey, Norway, and Portugal.

COMMANDER BROWNSON'S SMILE A Story of the Brazilian Rebellion That Sallermen Love to Tell.

The going abroad of Capt. Brownson on his mission for the United States Government recalls an episode in his life showing exactly the kind of a man he is. It was in January, 1894. that the civil war in Brazil was coming to a climax in the barbor at Rio, Admiral da Game of the insurgents was in the harbor with several ships-of-war. The Government held the city, but while the insurgent Admiral held the water no shipping could go up to the front as long as he said it couldn't, and he said no. Various Governments were affected by this embargo, "blockade" the Admiral called it. Great Britain was concerned chiefly, but the United States were a good second, with Germany and other nations as well.

Europe looked to America to do something in

the matter, and was naturally diffident about

water. At last Admiral Benham was sent down

to take charge of the United States fleet in Rio

harbor. The flagship was the San Francisco,

and on Sunday, Jan. 28, Admiral Benham

interfering in family rows on this side of the

called on his Captains to come aboard. Among them was Commander Brownson of the Detroit. It is said that after the conference this Com mander came back to his ship smiling. However that may be, he certainly smiled next morning. Just after 5 o'clock that evening -it was calm as could be, almost-the Yankee naval ships were seen to be in a hustle. The canvas awnings faded away, and in the night certain sounds were heard aboard them, at which various listeners put their hands cup shaped behind their ears to listen harder. On the morning of the 29th there was a change in the appearance of the Yankee fleet. It had off its coat, waistcoat and shirt, so to speak, and was just eying itself when day lawned to see how good its training had been. The insurgent ships Aguidaban and Tamantheir cables short ready to trip. The Trajano and Guanabara, as well as the fleet of armed tugs, were crowded with men from the garrisons of Cobras and Villegaigen. The Liberdado flew the little blue ensign, for Aumiral da Gama was aboard her, lying with the Trajano and Guanabara north of Enchados Island, a few yards from the American bark Amy, one of the boats kept out by the blockade. The Parahylan was lying with its teeth, so to speak, at the throat of the Yankee barkentine Good News.

Commander Brownson on the Detroitgot his ship under way, having holsted anchor at 6 o'clock, and headed toward the city between Enchados and Cobras islands. Her crew were at her guns, and as enger a lot of men as ous could see anywhere at that time. The anchor got fouled in the Detroit's hawse hole, and that was ample excuse for proceeding slowly, which was convenient, while a couple of insurgent tugs made a sputter at the northern littorallyf the city, as they had been doing a long time. After a couple of men had been killed aboard the tugs they drew back and the Detroit, with everything clear, rounded Enchados Island and came along starboard side to starboard of the Trajano. The men looked through their sights and then up at Commander Brownson on the bridge. The story of what they saw is a tradition in the nary now and always will be so long as men like Brownson are in command. The Commander was smiling.

A man on the Trajano raised a musket and fired a buillet over the hoads of saliors builling away in a boat with a line from the Amy to a ship at anchor that the Amy might be warped to the forbidden docks. Two heavy insurgent tugs came around with their rams pointed at the slied of the Detroit. On the San Francisco the red flag of battle had been run up to the fore truck in stops. A quartermaster stood with his hand on the halliards egger to break it out, with their cables short ready to trip. The Trajano and Guanabara, as well as the fleet of armed

the red has of cathe and been run up to the fore truck in stopa. A quartermaster stood with his hand on the halliards eager to break it out, with his eyes fixed on the Admiral, who was looking at the Detroit for the sign which would cause him to give the quartermaster the order so ar-dently desired.

When the insurgent shot was fired Com-

him to give the quartermaster the orderso ardently desired.

When the insurgent shot was fired Commander Brownson turned to the gunner at a one-pounder and with a scarcely perceptible increase of the smile ordered the man to show into the Trajano at the water line six foet aboft the stern. The order was misunderstood, and the shot went across the insurgents bow. Thereupon Capt. Brownson halled:

"Trajano, aboy!" he shouted. "If you are again! will return the fire, and if you persist! will sink you.

The Trajano's crews were excited. If a nervous finger had pulled a trigger the fight would have been on.

Hut the shot did not sound. The sallers on the Amy's yawi waited to see what they were to do next." You go should." Commander Heavestern."

You go ahead," Commander Brownson uted, "and I'll protect you."

"You go anosa, shouted, "and I'll protect you."
The sailors went,
"Aim at the Guanabara!" ordered Commander
Brownson. And the greasy black muzzles of
the Lietroit's broadside and the two pivot gues
awang around, looking bigger and bigger seley
moment, till they stopped, levelled at the cruiser.
The practicularly nervous gun crew about the moment, till they stopped, lovelled at the cruiser. One particularly nervous gun crew aboard the insurgent was conspicuous. Commander Brown-son waved his hand, with a half smile, and this

son waved his hand, with a half since, so rew fell back.

Then the Yankee ships led the way to the docks, with other ships crowding in with them, and after a while the rebellion collapsed. But the sallors who were on the Belroit at that there have told the story of Commander Brownson's saile to other sailors, and these to still others, till thas rippled to overy water where the starry if siles, and it is heard with marked interest in them. On the ships of other nations—incr wide on the ships of other nations met who ave seen smiling men fight.

Smelling Contests as Social Functions

From the Hartford Times. At the closing party of the Colonial Whist Club on Wednesday evening at the residence of Mr. and Mrs. Frest R. Loydon, on May street, one of the features introduced in the way of the tertainment after the playing made a good deal of amusement.

tertainment after the playing made a good of animement.

Twelve miniature viais were filled liquids of uniform red color, but all of filled odors. The test was for each guest to have several odors and write their names of the odors chosen were familiar, such a whazel, cologue, wintergreen, pennyly we leanen, &c., and it would be supposed that would be little or no difficulty in deciding, but it was not so easy after all or reason that the stronger of cast of the sense of smell as to the none delicate of Some of the mustakes were very annually highest score, cleven out of the winds by one of the gentlemen were rather by the scores by the gentlemen were rather by the those of the lands. A curious han those of the fantes. A curious hat a vial containing a liquid with odor whatever was wrongly guessed by ladies and was identified as water by only two of the party, both gentleten.